

ODICAL ROOM
RAL LIBRARIES
OF THE UNIVERSITY

MAR 19 1935

The JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

The Curriculum Must Serve Society

JUNIUS L. MERIAM, *Editor*

Schools That Satisfy	C. R. Mann	387
✓A Business Man's View of Public-School Education	H. W. Prentis, Jr.	396
Schools Should Serve Society	Paul F. Voelker	406
Big-Business Fascism in Illinois	Robert C. Moore	412
Adaptation of the Schools to the Social Order in the Philippine Islands	E. H. Sanguinet	421
Surviving Schools	E. L. Morgan	428
School Costs and School Service	Junius L. Meriam	434
Research Projects and Methods		443
Editorial, 385	Book Reviews, 447	

MARCH 1935

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

Editorial Staff

E. GEORGE PAYNE, *Editor-in-Chief*

Associate Editors

HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH FRANCIS J. BROWN FREDERIC M. THRASHER

Editorial Council

L. L. BERNARD	ELLSWORTH FARIS	CHARLES C. PETERS
EMORY S. BOGARDUS	ERNEST R. GROVES	R. E. PICKETT
JOHN M. BREWER	JOSEPH K. HART	WILLIAM C. RUEDIGER
F. STUART CHAPIN	CHARLES S. JOHNSON	FLORENCE W. SCHAPER
GEORGE S. COUNTS	JOHN J. LOFTUS	W. R. SMITH
PHILIP W. L. COX	PAUL S. LOMAX	DAVID SNEDDEN
C. A. ELLWOOD	JUNIUS L. MERIAM	JOHN W. WITHERS
M. C. ELMER		

Permanent Departments

Research Projects and Methods in Educational Sociology,
FREDERIC M. THRASHER, *Editor*

A department that will give an opportunity for a short report of each research in process in the colleges and universities, so that those immediately concerned may become familiar with the type of work that is in progress.

Book Reviews, HARVEY W. ZORBAUGH, *Editor*

A department for the purpose of presenting to the teaching profession a real estimate of the latest books in the field. The editor will strive to obtain frank criticism and critical estimates of the books published.

THE JOURNAL is published by The Journal of Educational Sociology, Inc., monthly from September to May, inclusive. Publication and business office, Room 41, 26 Washington Place, New York, N. Y. Editorial office, Room 42, Press Building, New York University, 32 Washington Place, New York City.

The subscription price is \$3.00 per year; the price of single copies is 35 cents. Orders for less than half a year will be charged at the single-copy rate.

Entered as second-class matter September 27, 1934, at the Post Office at New York, N. Y., under the Act of March 3, 1879.

The contents of previous issues of THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY may be found by consulting the Education Index or the Public Affairs Information Service.

PRINTED IN THE U. S. A.



The JOURNAL of EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

A Magazine of Theory and Practice

VOL. VIII

MARCH 1935

No. 7

EDITORIAL

S-O-S! Save Our Schools! This is the call resounding from east to west—from north to south, throughout our country. Our schools are one of many social institutions hit square in the face by financial stress. Even if it be true that our financial depression is somewhat less depressing, the cry of distress continues to be broadcast, an appeal for the saving of our schools.

The plea is directed to all classes of people on whose response the financial status of public education depends. The plea calls for sustaining funds in spite of any financial depression, local or national. Whatever be the hazards to other institutions, our public schools must not suffer! The claim is that these schools are the very foundation of our democracy and the driving force in advancing civilization. They must not suffer.

Quite naturally this call comes from those who think themselves in greatest danger—teachers and school officials through their representatives. The most prominent of these is the National Education Association through its representative, the Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education. The "coöperating organizations," announced by this Commission, are the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, the Phi Delta Kappa Educational Fraternity, Congress of Parents and Teachers, etc., all of them intimately related to our schools. The broadcasting of the plight in which our schools are found is winning

Copyright 1935 The Journal of Educational Sociology, Incorporated

much sympathetic response. To this Joint Commission and its coöperating organizations generous credit is due.

The critical observer cannot but wonder why there are so few lay organizations coöperating in this appeal to save our schools. One simple suggestion is offered.

Substitute for the S-O-S, Save Our Schools, a very different S-O-S, Serve Our Society. This new appeal is not addressed to the taxpayer and the public, but in the other direction, by the taxpayer and the public to the schools. The schools are to be saved through their service to society rather than through charity by society. The situation is more crucial than the school and the public realize. If suitable service is rendered society, that society will not forsake its benefactor. Schools are an investment. If the returns are creditable, the public is readily responsive.

Here is the theme for this issue of **THE JOURNAL**. An effort was made to present views from both schoolmen and laymen. Frank professional discussion is wanted. Each contributor is responsible for his own views.

J. L. MERIAM

SCHOOLS THAT SATISFY

C. R. MANN

C. R. Mann is well known for his educational work as research expert in the Carnegie Foundation, consulting expert in education during the war, and as director of the American Council on Education. The press of May 18, 1933, reported an address by Dr. Mann, before the American Council on Education, in which he challenged American educators to "deliver the goods" or abandon their claim to increasing public support. This challenge led to the request for this contribution to THE JOURNAL.

In pioneer days the building of a school was one of the first activities of every newly settled community. Backed by this expression of public confidence, the little red school house became a symbol of American aspiration for liberty. Recently, however, not only a scattered community here and there but even whole States have permitted their schools to close because budgets for all public services were reduced. Has public confidence in schools vanished? When prosperity returns, what shall we do about schools? Shall we reestablish the former practices of the schools or shall we inaugurate new school practices which better serve the changed economic and social conditions?

Every community must answer these questions for itself. Two practical suggestions, although apparently in unrelated fields, still present so many of the typical difficulties that schools must overcome in reappraising results and making needed reorganizations that they are here presented in some detail. Study of these suggestions are helpful to citizens in every community in developing methods of finding answers to these school problems. The first is the analysis of the final report of the National Planning Board, created by executive order in June 1933 and transferred to the National Resources Board on July 1, 1934.

The final report of the National Planning Board contains a digest of comments on national planning as evidenced by historical events. The report begins with brief tributes to the "dominant

part played in the building of America by the uncoördinated efforts of individuals and families, by the spontaneous movements of masses of the people, and by the clashes of conflicting interests." It is shown that even the early settlements exemplify a form of corporate planning "modified by the religious and social ideals of the settlers themselves."

During the early years of national growth there was continuing conflict between the plans proposed respectively by Alexander Hamilton and Thomas Jefferson. These spontaneous conflicts overshadowed efforts towards planful evolution and often perverted many of the devices intended to promote national development. Thus the tariff was turned from an agency of national development into a powerful instrument of local and group interests. Internal improvements were at times diverted to satisfy the greed of particular individuals. Such controversies furnished incentives for rival systems of national policy about which the struggle for the future of America raged. Few noticed that the nation prospered slowly under such stress and only so long as the frontier was open.

After the Civil War the rival philosophies of *laissez faire* and of rugged individualism began to evolve. More and more these dominated the struggle for many years amid a series of abuses which steadily grew in spite of efforts to stop them by comprehensive plans for land use, for conservation, for public regulation, and for social betterment in the interests of all the people. The evolution of the antitrust laws is typical. Still the control of the private profit incentive steadily increased until most people accepted the principle as a matter of course during the earlier years of the present century and the World War.

All remember how during the World War the economic life in America was reorganized and given central control under a universally approved desire for victory. When the armistice came in the fall of 1918 we were on the verge of entering a period of

real planned economy. But nothing of the sort happened then. People did not fully recognize that America had changed from a debtor to a creditor nation and that the age of economy of scarcity had ended. No one then seemed to understand how to readjust social life to fit the economics of plenty that then dawned. Business leaders sought for ten years to reestablish economic life on prewar conceptions of competition and survival of the fittest, resulting in the collapse of 1929 and the subsequent five years of disillusionment and depression.

The report analyzes several of the notable efforts made by the New Deal to revive national productivity. It shows, for example, how the National Recovery Administration sought to establish a centralized control that still preserves the values of individual initiative. Its guiding principles are a minimum living wage, industrial self-government, and coöperative action between the Government, management, and labor to maintain a stable prosperity. But the code authorities are generally business men interested by tradition in competition, price fixing, and personal profit. The Central Statistical Board likewise found that these business men are more interested in code enforcement than in national policy. Hence, the partial failure of NRA and the endless discussion as to whether its authority shall be continued in its present or in some modified form.

The Tennessee Valley Authority is particularly significant because of its double mandate "to aid further the proper use, conservation, and development of natural resources" and "to provide for the welfare of the citizens of said areas." For achievement of its first purpose the TVA is building dams, electric-power equipment, and suitable residences for the people. In its social planning the Authority is trying to maintain the existing institutional structure, to conform in general to normal business practices, and to extend better and more service to the population. While its efforts to maintain institutional practices often

impose restrictions on quick attainment of immediate results, the extension of better and more services results in lowering of prices and, hence, costs to the consumer.

Perhaps these two cases are sufficient to suggest some of the inherent difficulties in planning for national action by the suggested methods. Evidently the NRA finds it impossible to liberate men for coöperative teamwork so long as the code authorities insist on regulations that prescribe competition, price fixing, and personal profit. The desire for these customary results seems to be ingrained in men's emotions from long tradition and experience. They know that such results give satisfaction. They lack personal experience with the satisfactions that come from coöperation and the more abundant life. Hence they dare not risk any untried personal ventures. Adjustment of these two conflicting requirements must somehow be made.

The TVA, on the other hand, is trying to develop natural resources in a manner that provides for the welfare of the citizens. In their building operations they are moving with due respect to existing institutional structure and business practices. Yet their social results are good. They are introducing new methods that result in more service at lower costs. Hence, they are producing new facts and experiences that make confidence in social coöperation more reliable than competition in the working process. Their experiences are furnishing the data needed to demonstrate that the consumer can secure what he really wants at lower cost than is required by public utilities operating on the formerly sanctioned methods. These are the data needed by President Roosevelt in his efforts to make utilities either furnish power at lower rates or quit.

To indicate how the inherent, necessary, material data may be reliably secured, the National Planning Board Report includes two special reports, one from the National Research Council and the other from the Social Science Research Council. The former

lists the special types of information that natural science must continue to furnish by continuing research in physics, in chemistry, in mathematics, in geology, and in biology. This report emphasizes the exactness of the material findings furnished by science. It also reminds us that for real living we must maintain proper balance between the material contributions of science and the human features that determine the values of life. Hence, scientific data must be balanced with human longing for values that really satisfy the heart's desire. This is one of the most difficult problems in the advance of civilization.

Similarly, the special report of the Social Science Research Council stresses the growing hunger of all people for enlightenment concerning the principles which are being proved by the social sciences. Such a social-science foundation is now needed for general understanding of the basis of national planning by the processes proposed. No reliable information is given concerning the nature of the principles of social behavior to which reference is made.

The inherent difficulties in national planning of the sort advocated by the Planning Board was recognized by President Angell in a lecture last November before the Carnegie Institution when he said, "An ill-omened industrialism exploiting ruthlessly and with little prevision of the social consequences of labor-saving discoveries of science and technology has created social and economic ruin for millions of men."

The foregoing summary of the findings of the National Planning Board is presented at some length because it describes so many of the traditional elements in planning as they are generally understood by most people. The second practical suggestion for procedure with the school problem comes from analysis of the customary way in which social habits evolve. Both procedures are illustrated vividly in the recent experiences of Americans with the prohibition amendment to the Federal Constitu-

tion. For taking away from all people all opportunity to get intoxicating beverages seemed to a minority group a highly desirable outcome. Therefore, that group planned for years how to achieve that result. Through years of aggressive campaigning numbers of individual States were successfully led to put prohibition legislation on their statute books. "Dry" States gradually increased. Then a centralized attack was made on the Federal Congress. The Eighteenth Amendment was finally ratified. The combined forces of public sanction and of police repression were lined up to make the people want to be dry.

For fifteen years the system retained its legal authority as planned by those who conceived it. The Federal Government tried sincerely to force the outcome that seemed desirable when it was approved. Meanwhile, the masses of the people for whose benefit the project had been planned were observing the results and forming their personal judgments concerning both the practicality and the desirability of the results. In this way so much adverse opinion developed that the law was repealed. The futility of trying to achieve results people do not want by autocratic methods was apparent to a large majority because of many personal experiences with the plan. The system violated too flagrantly personal conceptions of liberty and individual responsibility.

Analysis of this second procedure by which the prohibition amendment was repealed shows that this is the ordinary procedure by which changes normally are accomplished. The experience shows how masses of the people behave, each of whom is naturally following his own intuitions in spite of the announced practice for centralized control. In other words, the way in which the free spirit of masses of the people reacts to efforts at regulation is revealed by the results which every one observes in his personal experiences. Ordinarily, this procedure advances slowly because a long time is required to make clear how the free spirit

reacts in enough cases to convince the majority of the people. When enough cases are secured, a change is made.

This normal process of collecting the experiences which prove how free people naturally act can be very much accelerated. How this is done has been illustrated in many ways by the experiences of organizations in developing the methods of simplified practice. It is revealed most simply in the experiences of communities with the evolution of the traffic regulations. In the beginning, traffic regulations were established for the purpose of making automobile traffic conform to the habits which had developed from experiences with horse-drawn vehicles. The regulations sought to slow traffic down to the rate to which we were accustomed. Gradually, however, the idea developed that the purpose of traffic regulation is to expedite traffic. Hence, in modern communities this needed centralized control of traffic is designed to maintain the essential features of centralized control in a way that encourages each independent, responsible driver to use his own judgment in managing his own car in the most appropriate way. Special observers, instructed to report how independent drivers do behave under traffic regulations at particular points, gather the facts and report them to the central traffic board. From an analysis of these rapidly accumulated data as to how free drivers actually do behave with regard to traffic regulations, the traffic board determines how the traffic regulations must be changed in order to liberate the drivers more completely. In this way, the normal evolution of traffic regulations is expedited. The centralized control is constantly being made more effective by adjusting it as far as possible to individual desire for speed with safety. The driving public, as a result of its own experiences, rapidly accepts and obeys the kind of centralized control that assures them of this greater individual liberty.

The insight gained by the traffic experiences is applicable directly to the school problem. For school regulations may oper-

ate, like traffic regulations, as restraints on the constructive desires of children. For example, every secondary-school system requires all freshmen to take algebra. The statistics of the algebra classes show that each year about a quarter of the students are repeating algebra in an effort to achieve the "pass" mark of 60 per cent. Does such a universal algebra requirement help or hinder individual freedom and growth of the students? This question may be answered, like the traffic question, by observing results achieved by large numbers of students endeavoring to meet the specifications of the requirement. Probably every school system will find that at least 25 per cent of the students required to take algebra each year have failed algebra the first time and are repeating it in an effort to measure up to the requirement a second time. The same sort of observations showing how students behave under any other school requirements are easily made.

Significant objective observations, showing what over 60,000 pupils achieve in fourteen subjects in 400 high schools in the State of Iowa, are rapidly accumulating in the Every-Pupil contest conducted annually by the University of Iowa. In fact, the average composite student scores produced by the students in 283 nonaccredited high schools in Iowa overlap completely the corresponding scores secured by the students at 92 high schools approved by the accrediting standards of the North Central Association. The scores of each school in the upper third of the nonaccredited list are superior to those of corresponding scores in the lower third of the accredited schools. Such experiments as these in Iowa and similar experiments in Indiana make it clear that higher educational authorities must encourage every school to solve its own problems in a way to reveal the results which students accomplish in different types of procedure. In other words, schools are finding it advantageous to apply the technique of the traffic study to educational problems.

Any one who analyzes the results showing what students under varying conditions actually achieve in each of the fourteen customarily required lines of work soon recognizes that records of this sort supply the data needed to determine which of the current school services is worthy of continued support and which is wasted energy for the students. On the basis of such findings every school may appraise the actual achievements of the students themselves and may change their school practices until the students' achievement shows clearly that they have accepted the responsibility of achieving their own desired results themselves. Such measurements of actual student accomplishment show schools what kind of centralized control produces decentralized responsibility of the sort which students really desire. This is the central, critical American problem.

Analyses of the many activities discussed by the National Planning Board and the results of numerous experiences like those with traffic regulations furnish many suggestions as to how any given community can work to improve its own school situation. Every community must experiment in ways that seem most nearly to satisfy its own specific requirements. Out of a number of such spontaneous and independent modifications will surely come a school service that more nearly satisfies the aspirations of our people.

A BUSINESS MAN'S VIEW OF PUBLIC-SCHOOL EDUCATION

H. W. PRENTIS, JR.

H. W. Prentis, Jr., is president of the Armstrong Cork Company of Lancaster, Pennsylvania. He took his A.B. degree at the University of Missouri in 1903, his A.M. at the University of Cincinnati in 1907, and was honored with the LL.D. degree by Hampden-Sydney College, Virginia, in 1932. He is an active member of a large number of clubs, organizations, and committees, social, commercial, civic, educational, and religious. He represents "big business." His own company comprises 8,500 persons at home and abroad.

When asked by the editor of this issue of *THE JOURNAL* to prepare this article, I served notice on him that my ideas would doubtless be held reactionary by a progressive like himself. So I repeat now what I told him then: Education should have as its primary objectives the making of the individual at once mentally resourceful and mentally humble. To acquire resourcefulness and mental humility involves more than dabbling with a broad range of widely diversified subject matter. Mental discipline is necessary—the development of the capacity to think accurately and persistently. Therefore the three R's should be driven in strongly during the early stages of the educational process. All this was to make clear that if his invitation stood, he might "catch a Tartar." Evidently he was willing to run the risk, because his suggestion was not withdrawn in the face of this candid warning.

I do not agree with all the implications involved in the allegedly true incident that follows. I relate it simply because it is symptomatic of the attitude of countless American citizens towards many features of present-day primary and secondary education, sometimes expressed, frequently repressed. The story is said to have been told on himself by the son—now a full-fledged business executive—of a well-known professor of the philosophy of education. The family in question, consisting of

the narrator, his little sister, and their parents, had spent the summer on a relative's farm in New Hampshire. A barn was being built, and the young son of the family, through intimate association with the masons, carpenters, and other mechanics engaged in the work, acquired a fluent vocabulary of profanity, of which his mother and father remained ignorant.

September rolled around and the family returned to New York City, where for the first time a Montessori school was being opened. Anxious to have their children receive the benefits of the latest wrinkles in education, the eager parents entered both their children. On the opening day they were taken to the school, with the understanding that the mother would call for them at noon when the day's session ended. The wide-eyed children were ushered into a large, well-lighted room filled with sand piles, brightly colored paper and scissors, building blocks, beads and string, diminutive work benches, and the other paraphernalia of the cult. All went smoothly for perhaps an hour. Then the small son asked permission to use the telephone, and the instructress, pleased by this evidence of budding youthful initiative, gladly granted the request. Obviously the shocked "Montessoriess" could hear but one side of the ensuing conversation: "Yes, I know it's only ten o'clock, but, mother, please come down and get sis and me right away." "But, mother, I don't want to go back to the schoolroom." "No, mother, *please*, mother, come and take us away quick." "Yes, I know you said you would call for us at noon, but please come right away instead." "All right, then, mother, I'll go back, but all I can say is that you'd better come and take sis and me away quick unless you want to have a couple of goddamned bead stringers for children!"

There have been genuine advances in public-school education in the past twenty years. Our schools are not making bead stringers out of the majority of our children. However, in the larger centers of population where during the "golden decade" there

was a plethora of money to spend, procured from taxes on successful business enterprise and swollen bond issues, there was a tendency in that direction, the extent of that trend bearing apparently some relationship to the degree that the theories of a small group of educational philosophers had found root and sustenance in the local school system.

Looking at public education from a common-sense point of view, it seems that it should have two objectives: first, to give the masses the rudiments of an education covering those broad fundamentals essential to making a living and helpful in enjoying life itself; second, to provide for the stimulation and development of the gifted individual who has in him the possibility of social, industrial, or political leadership. Needless to say, both of these objectives should be sought at a cost commensurate with the income of the citizenry. Failure to differentiate clearly between them has caused many of the difficulties now faced by the public-school system.

To be specific: The effort to furnish facilities for the masses that should have been provided and reserved for the small group of talented individuals who could make adequate and profitable use of such advantages has led to extravagant expenditures in many communities during the past twenty years. Today it is difficult to maintain and service these properties in the face of shrunken general income. Naturally one cannot generalize accurately for a huge country like the United States, but I know personally of township schools in Pennsylvania, for example, with sumptuous auditoriums and gymnasiums, elaborately equipped laboratories and shops, which provide facilities that are out of all proportion to those actually required to furnish a sound general education for the majority of the children who attend them. Just as the unbounded optimism, which in the light of the last five years seems to have been foolhardiness, caused the unwise expansion of industrial plants, business buildings, apart-

ments, and hotels, so many communities pursuing the innate American tendency to have everything in "our town bigger and better" were induced to undertake what now appear to have been overambitious school-building programs. In other words, we find in the public-school "plant" in some sections of the country factors common to other phases of American life in the period leading up to the depression.

In this connection the responsibility of certain specialists in educational theory should not be overlooked. Their influence has been far greater than the average citizen suspects or realizes. They are scattered pretty widely but perhaps their principal center of activity might be localized, if one searched for it, in the northern section of Manhattan Island. Now theorists and dreamers are essential; without them the world could not progress. It is essential, however, that all theories should be tested against the lessons of history and practical experience before they are applied on too far flung a scale; and I doubt whether many American citizens—outside educational circles—realize the extent to which the interests of their children and the ultimate destiny of our representative democracy are being affected by the particular group of educational theorists to which reference is made. As a rule their dreams and visions have not been checked and refined in the crucible of experience before being applied to rather extensive programs. Their ideas have not been discussed and criticized intelligently by thinking laymen.

Deplorable as this may be, it is not surprising. The educational theorist is dealing with intangibles, the impact of which on our social, economic, and political life is not immediately in evidence; in fact the ultimate results, whether for good or ill, are long deferred. Several generations of school children will have to grow up and come to maturity before the real value of many of these theories can be determined. In this respect the professional expert in education differs from experts in other fields. The physician's

proficiency or lack of proficiency becomes evident to his patients very speedily; the practising engineer is judged quickly by immediate factual results; the lawyer's mettle is soon determined among his clients by his success in winning cases; the buildings the architect erects speak for themselves in steel and stone. In comparison, the educational expert has a free hand. Practical schoolmen criticize and discuss his theories of course. But it must be remembered that budding schoolmen (and women) seeking knowledge—and professional advancement as well—are accustomed to attend the summer classes of these experts, since their influence in determining the selection of superintendents and principals is well known. The favored school executive in turn may at times be in a position to reciprocate by engaging these outstanding theorists for such congenial tasks as "curriculum building." One Western city is alleged to have spent \$100,000 only a few years ago for such service. Educational fashions change rapidly, however, and the introduction of textbooks by certain expert authors sometimes leads to the early abandonment of even expensively built curricula.

All of this implies no imputation of improper procedure. However, the fact that such reciprocal methods of advancing self-interest are not unknown in the altruistic stratosphere of high academic circles may be of some passing interest to selfish business men and bankers whose sordid profit motive has been scoured in the public prints recently by more than one of these high priests of education. The expert has probably been helpful in most cases, but, as already stated, few laymen today recognize the degree to which the theories of a handful of educational philosophers are coloring our public education and guiding the expenditures therefor.

Business men will recall vividly the descent of the "efficiency engineer" on American industry twenty odd years ago. Like a plague of locusts, these self-styled experts swarmed into any fac-

tory or office that could afford the temporary luxury of their presence—with bales of charts and graphs and time studies and psychological personnel tests. Slapdash in performance, irritating in procedure, superficial in conclusions, their shallowness was soon exposed, and to this day even the name, "efficiency engineer," remains a term of opprobrium. But the careful, plodding, painstaking industrial engineer carries on in unspectacular fashion effecting new economies every day. Similarly, industry has not forgotten the eloquent proponents of the "psychology of salesmanship" whose star rose and fell a decade or so since. Their main stock in trade was to cast a pseudo-scientific pall of mystery about the simple common-sense task involved in selling goods and services. Obviously it would be unfair to suggest the slightest parallel between the activities of such self-alleged experts in manufacturing and selling, and those that have been engaged so busily since the turn of the century in the exploration of the psychology of elementary and secondary education. To the layman, reading the latter's books, however, there seems to be some drift—shall we say—towards enveloping elementary-school teaching with a faintly similar circumambient veil of esotericism. Even at that, native horse sense still asserts itself on occasion as, for example, when a distinguished professor of the philosophy of education, after ninety-five pages of logomachy maintaining the superiority of interest over effort in training the child mind, brings forth this simple, understandable statement which effectively neutralizes his preceding argument—panoplied though that argument is in all the translucent abstruseness with which educational psychology overawes the hard-worked teacher on the firing line:

It follows that little can be accomplished by setting up "interest" as an end or a method by itself. Interest is obtained not by thinking about it and consciously aiming at it, but by considering and aiming at the conditions that lie back of it, and compel it. If we can discover a child's urgent needs and

powers, and if we can supply an environment of materials, appliances, and resources—physical, social, and intellectual—to direct their adequate operation, we shall not have to think about interest. It will take care of itself.

Undoubtedly real education is the “drawing out” of the individual’s mind and is the result of a combination of personal desire and outward compulsion. Many modern educators assert that the old emphasis on mental discipline and drill has been wisely discarded; that efforts to educate where there is no interest are futile. No doubt there must be interest before mental effort is fully effective. This, however, is one of those dangerous half-truths that are so frequently accepted at face value by uncritical minds. The truth so far as children are concerned is probably that effort creates interest just as frequently as interest creates effort. What things do we as individuals value most in our adult life? The things for which we worked hardest. “For where your treasure is, there will your heart be also.”

The child who never learns that the values in life that are most worth while have to be struggled for mentally and physically is indeed poorly prepared to meet the problems that crowd upon him in his later years. How correct spelling, for example, can be learned accurately by any other means than continued practice in spelling—something that no child enjoys or is particularly interested in at the outset—is beyond the comprehension of the average layman, and the lack of such drill is only too evident in the case of many young people who seek business employment. How any one can learn any subject without consistent effort—“by thinking about it all the time,” as Newton put it—is difficult to grasp. The mastery of the multiplication table or the intricacies of algebra may be a deadly tiresome process to many a child’s mind, but the rapidity of mental reaction and the capacity to think in a straight line are unquestionably sharpened by the disciplinary effect of mathematical training.

Failure to lead a child—through a combination of interest and compulsion—to grasp the importance of struggling for mental capacity has at least two unfortunate repercussions that reach far beyond the sphere of the immediate problem of fitting him to earn a living. In the first place, no one who has not had to struggle to attain mental and physical proficiency can hope ever to secure the thrill of satisfaction that comes from the realization of a job well done, or at least executed to the very limit of the individual's capacity at the moment. One reason that life seems drab to so many individuals as they approach middle age is that they were never induced through interest or compelled by early discipline to learn the satisfaction of achievement through hard, definite, persistent effort. Education does not attain its true goal unless it causes the individual to set a high internal standard of excellence for himself against which to measure his every act. Nothing would make for the lessening of waste in industry—both material waste and human waste—more than the inculcation of a passion for excellence for its own sake in the mind of every growing child. That means more mental discipline, more drill, if you will, backed and supported of course by every intelligent effort that can be coupled with it to add interest to the task. Many business men today feel that the schools have dodged their responsibilities on this important score; they have been too much occupied in filling the pupil with shallow and variegated ideas in an abortive effort to substitute the interest motive for mental discipline. The result is that too many students emerge from our primary and secondary schools unwilling to pay the price in sustained mental effort that modern business life requires for happiness and efficiency.

Perhaps our ultramodern educational leaders might well pause and give some heed to the comment of that cocky philosopher, Count Keyserling, in his *America Set Free*:

America is fundamentally the land of the overrated child. This then is the deepest reason for that infantilism one so often observes in grown-up Americans. . . . The general kindergarten atmosphere of the United States discourages their attempts to develop as they might.

Reduced emphasis on mental discipline and drill in our public schools gives point to the reflections of a brilliant Spaniard, Salvador de Madariaga, when he observed in 1928:

Americans are direct, frank, and spontaneous like children. They want to know because they are curious, not because they seek some advantage from the information they are asking. They just want to know. They are hungry and thirsty for information—facts, stories. But they dislike thought as wholesome, healthy children do.

The second repercussion that springs from undue attention to the interest motive and the lack of that mental discipline which was more prevalent in our schools twenty-five years ago than it is today is of even deeper and more portentous significance. The methods advocated by our modern educational philosophers have unwittingly led a growing group of young people to the conclusion that the great achievements of civilization are a God-given right to which they are justly entitled, irrespective virtually of personal effort. Having had educational opportunity served to them on the half shell, they are prone to forget the men who dug the oysters. The social and political eventualities inherent in that attitude of mind are appalling to sincere believers in representative democracy. It accounts in large measure for the ferment we witness all about us in the world today. As Ortega y Gasset puts it in his *Revolt of the Masses*:

The masses . . . are only concerned with their own well-being and at the same time they remain alien to the cause of that well-being. As they do not see, behind the benefits of civilization, marvels of invention and construction which can only be maintained by great effort and foresight, they imagine that their rôle is limited to demanding these benefits peremptorily as if they were natural rights.

A simple curriculum, intelligent and sympathetic instruction, modest physical equipment should and will suffice to provide the fundamentals of education for the great majority of children—at least as much education as they are capable of absorbing and putting to sound use. Elaborate equipment and instruction in specialized subjects should be reserved for that minority of the population that can use such facilities to their own advantage and that of the body politic. Every opportunity the country can afford should be provided for the gifted and earnest individual in whom the hope of future leadership resides. No obstacle should be thrown in such a child's way, but the process of winnowing out such individuals from the mass should be carried out thoroughly and relentlessly through repeated examinations covering both mental and moral fitness. The average American can see no reason for forcing a John Dillinger to go through high school and thus make a "bigger and better" crook. What I am saying here is as old as Plato. It is, of course, not popular doctrine, but, applied intelligently and without prejudice, such a program would ensure the mass of our young people better training for the actual problems of living they will encounter, and furnish even better opportunities for the limited group who possess the native endowment to qualify them for professional, executive, and public careers.

SCHOOLS SHOULD SERVE SOCIETY

PAUL F. VOELKER

Paul F. Voelker is chairman of the Michigan Educational Planning Commission. Among the nineteen members are representatives of the Federation of Labor, Real Estate Association, Manufacturers' Association, Farm Bureau, State Tax Committee, etc., as well as representatives of the schools. "Associates in Conference" number forty-seven, representing a wide range of laymen and schoolmen.

If human society were organized like a colony of honey bees, all of our efforts and activities, both collective and individual, would be in the common service of us all. In a society thus organized, the efforts of all individuals would be coöperative instead of competitive and each individual would find his happiness in the giving of service rather than in the pursuit of gain. Our present stage of evolution is far from the realization of such an organization. We may not even be heading in that direction. Even a casual observer would assert that the majority of human beings find greater satisfaction in individual expression than they do in social submersion.

Nevertheless we find a great number of institutions that have evidently been set up for carrying out the collective will of large organized groups of human beings. Probably no institution may be said to represent the collective will of all of human society. If ever such an institution were established it might be an international government or some international activity which would require more or less coöperation on the part of all of the inhabitants of our planet. We are too far removed from the development of such an institution to make plans for it. All we can do is to develop such institutions as represent concerted effort on the part of large organized groups of individuals.

It is difficult for an established institution to remain as a useful agency of the will of a group for any considerable length of time.

The reason for this is that institutions tend to become traditional and automatic in their functioning. Witness, for example, our courts of law, with their useless and worn-out formalities. Witness our archaic bicameral legislative assemblies. Witness the time-honored but nonfunctioning conceptions and formalities to which our religious institutions continue to cling. Every institution which fails to adjust itself promptly to social changes is in grave danger of ceasing to perform a valuable service to society at large or to the organization which called it into being.

Our schools are no exception to this rule. If they are to perform a useful function, they must continue to adjust themselves to the social demands. The founders of our nation believed in education as a means to securing good government and the happiness of mankind. Good government is a social desideratum whereas happiness is largely an individualistic goal. Our fathers placed good government above the interests of individuals when they established our educational system. Their evident purpose was that education should function in the preparation for citizenship. The service of the schools in preparing boys and girls to be good citizens has been the excuse for levying taxes in the support of our educational institutions, but this social aim of preparing for citizenship has gradually been subverted into the more individualistic aims of imparting cultural knowledge and of developing vocational skill as a means to helping individuals in their struggle for existence.

While it is impossible to make a sweeping statement regarding any institution and it would obviously be unfair to make such a statement all-inclusive, it is probably true that the avowed purpose of most of our schools today is to render service in the interests of individuals, that their general method is utilization of individual effort, and that the motive to which most frequent appeal is made is the motive of individual success. Individual efficiency is the primary product of our educational systems of

today. Social efficiency is only their by-product. Whatever social efficiency we have achieved has depended more upon accidental influences, such as the personality of the teacher, the traditions of the playground, the influences of the home, of the church, of the neighborhood, of the street, than upon the formal program of education. The net result of our formal education has been enlightened self-interest. Our schools have given but little attention to the development of those characteristics that make for social efficiency. In the preparation of our students we have not sufficiently emphasized their adaptation to social usefulness. We have failed to develop a technique of coöperation. We have given technical training and professional knowledge to those who have sat under our instruction but we have allowed them to go out into the world with the paramount purpose of winning success for themselves. The net result has been that the more efficient our schools have become as individualizing agencies, the more have they tended to weaken and even disrupt the social order which they were organized to perpetuate.

If our schools are to serve society, a beginning must be made in the attitude of the members of our profession. It is conceivable that representatives of the medical or legal professions might be somewhat justified in considering their service as an individual rather than as a social contribution but it is inconceivable that a real teacher could take this point of view. In a time like the present when millions are in distress and out of employment, when taxation systems are breaking down, when society is faced by almost insoluble problems, when education needs reconstruction in philosophy, in program, in organization, in method, one would expect that the members of our profession would earnestly strive to assist in the solution of these problems and thus render a real service to society. But what do we find? We find thousands of self-sacrificing teachers uncomplaining and working for a mere pittance on the one hand, and on the other hand, we find militant

groups who are agitated, not with the problems of reconstruction of education, but with the problems of raising their salaries and of making their tenures more permanent. In listening to the discussions of some of these militant groups, one might almost be led to believe that our children exist that there might be schools; that the schools exist that the teachers might have jobs; that the teachers exist that there might be colleges; and that the colleges exist that the professors might draw salaries.

When we organized our Michigan Educational Planning Commission, which consists largely of lay men and women representing powerful interest groups, such as the Manufacturers Association, the Farm Bureau, the Grange, the Real Estate Association, the Chambers of Commerce, the Federation of Labor, the Federation of Women's Clubs, the Association of University Women, as well as groups of educators, I requested these representative men and women to tell us what kind of education the people of Michigan wanted for their children. What should be the goals of this education? What should be its extent? By what method should the money be raised? How much money should be expended? What should be the program and the curriculum? We feel we were justified in requesting these representative people to give us their answers to these problems, for the schools of Michigan belong to the people of Michigan rather than to the teachers and it is the business of the people to determine what kind of an education they want for their children. We must be sure, however, that any conclusions which are reached shall represent the consensus of opinion of the majority of the people of our great State.

The schools can render their maximum service only when they consider the welfare of all the people. Our educational institutions do not exist for their own sakes. They must not run on their own initiative. They must be responsive to the social needs. If one were to ask "What are the essentials of an education?" a fit-

ting reply would be the same reply that was given to a farmer who asked "What are the essentials of a good soil?" The reply was "It all depends upon what you want to raise!" If our schools are to raise the kind of citizen that can go out into the world to render social service, the teachers of these schools cannot be oblivious to what is going on outside of their cloistered walls. They must be sensitive to the dynamic elements of our social order. They must be the instrumentalities of the forces of progress and reconstruction. In fact, they must be the handmaidens of our civilization.

Much is being done at the present time to give our schools the social vision. Perhaps it may be said that the teachers are doing more than the people are doing. The people have been quite content to let the educators attend to the business of education while they, the people, attended to their more prosaic duties. But the people cannot shirk their responsibility for determining what the schools should do or evaluating the programs which are now in effect. Among the hopeful signs of the times are the socializing forces within the schools: playground activities, musical organizations, debating societies, the Future Farmers of America, the growing tendency towards the development of the spirit of good sportsmanship and of the technique of teamwork. The socialized recitation and the activities programs are pointing the way to a newer type of education. The adaptation of the curriculum to the child rather than the bending of the child to the curriculum is one of the reforms that is rapidly coming into practice. Teachers themselves are beginning to set up new values, new methods, and are envisioning new processes which a few years ago would have been considered revolutionary.

If the time ever comes when laymen and educators will plan the future of our educational system in coöperative effort, we may hope that our schools will not be motivated by individualistic considerations but by considerations of the social good. When

that time comes the public will participate in the educational opportunities of the community and society will share in its fruits; social efficiency will be the primary objective of education and all of our teachers will be actuated by the missionary spirit; our schools will study the possibilities of each individual child with the view to fitting him into his proper place in the social order; each individual will be prepared for participation in group life and each group will be trained in the collective performance of the functions of its community life. Then our schools will truly serve society. They will teach the individual to consider the social bearing of his conduct, they will train him in the suppression of his antisocial impulses and they will provide him with social motivation. In the school with the social vision, the whole group will be made socially conscious. It will be taught to consider the effect of its collective conduct upon its individual members and upon the general welfare and it will acquire the ability to act coöperatively in the protection of its community interests and in the conscious direction of its own progress.

BIG-BUSINESS FASCISM IN ILLINOIS

ROBERT C. MOORE

Robert C. Moore is editor of the Illinois Teacher. He was reared on the farm and advanced from rural-school teacher, through many phases of school work, to city superintendent. As legislative representative for the teachers of Illinois, he has contacted political, civic, and industrial issues.

On July 5, 1934, at the Washington meeting of the National Education Association, Mrs. Helen M. Rueben, a delegate from Illinois, made a motion in favor of organizing for mass action "to impress upon the entrenched interests now attacking the public schools the determination of the public to secure sufficient financial support to ensure for the public schools at least the educational efficiency of the predepression level."

In speaking on this motion the writer of this article said: "After our experience of the last few years in Illinois we can prove we are under the domination of a big-business fascism or of nazism of the entrenched interests, as they are called in this motion, that control our political parties, our State government; and they have adopted the most ruthless methods in their attacks upon public education."

We have been asked to produce our evidence in substantiation of this statement. Very well, let us call our witnesses.

Our first witness is an editorial entitled "A Dictatorship of Big Business," appearing in the March 1933 issue of *The School Review*, published in Chicago. A few sentences from that editorial describe our fascist group, as follows:

About a year ago there was organized in Chicago a group which took as its name the Citizens' Committee on Public Expenditures. . . . The press has at times referred to the organization as a committee of one hundred, but the active work appears to be carried on by a small group of thirty members. Of what interests the known members are representative may be seen in the facts that not fewer than half are directors or other officers of banks (including the four largest in the city), approximately

the same number are directors of other corporations, not fewer than nine are presidents or vice presidents of railways and large manufacturing and merchandising establishments, and at least seven are engaged in the real-estate business. A smaller number of other types of business interests are represented. No attempt seems to have been made to include in the membership representation of the host of other interests of the city, among them labor, education, welfare agencies, and local government. . . . It is absolutely extralegal. . . . This extralegal fascism is contrary to the best American principles.

We quote also a few sentences from the February 1933 *Elementary School Journal*, also published in Chicago:

The committee is an exclusive group representing only the large business interests of the community, and . . . is practically the spokesman of the banking interests to whom the city must look for the purchase of its securities in order that it may carry on the functions of government and protect its credit. In such a case the committee practically usurps one of the major functions of government because it speaks with an authority and a sanction which public officials will rarely find the courage to disregard. . . . The Chicago committee has . . . dictated without hesitation the maximum income which the several governmental agencies of the community may devise from taxation. In its scale of social valuations public education ranks low. . . . It would seem that the committee is determined to substitute its own will for the expressed will of the legally chosen representatives of the people.

In 1932 the Chicago Principals Club realized that some influence outside of the general public was shaping the policies of the school board. The club appointed a committee to determine certain facts about the Committee on Public Expenditures, sometimes called the "Sargent Committee" because its chairman was Mr. Fred Sargent, president of the Chicago and Northwestern Railway. After study and investigation the committee furnished the club with a printed report which contained the following statements:

The Sargent Committee is sometimes referred to in the press as a committee of one hundred, sometimes as a committee of two hundred and fifty. Twenty-three names were published in the press March 14, 1932.

Eight names in addition appear on the committee's letterhead. One member is deceased. Another member could not be identified. This report therefore is based on twenty-nine members.

As to their business affiliations, all of the members of the committee are associated in one way or another with big business. Five of them are on the board of directors of one or another of the four largest loop banks and two of them are on the boards of two of these banks. It is to these banks, the First National, the Harris Trust and Savings, the Continental Illinois, and the Northern Trust, that the Board of Education must look for the purchase of its tax warrants.

So far as can be determined from the records of those schools in the neighborhood where the members of the Sargent Committee now live, only two, possibly three, of the twenty members of the committee who have children ever sent them to the Chicago public elementary schools and these children have only attended in the low grades and for a short time.

In order to prevent the wrecking of the schools by the Committee on Public Expenditures, another committee was organized called the "Citizens Save Our Schools Committee." This was made up of members of parent-teacher associations, women's clubs of various titles, American Legion members, and members of other civic groups and organizations. On July 26, 1933, this committee issued a bulletin which contained the following statement:

On July 12, 1932, Mr. Fred Sargent and Mr. Ernest Graham, representing the Citizens' Committee on Public Expenditures, told members of the Board of Education in a public hearing that "it will not be possible for the board to finance its operations for the current year unless the school tax levy is reduced at least \$15,000,000." This demand was for a cut additional to the \$17,000,000 cut already made. These representatives said the Citizens' Committee would use its best efforts to secure money to enable the board to function for the remainder of the year and also to secure money for back salaries. After the board cut the additional \$15,000,000, the three and one-half months of back pay, which was due at the time Mr. Sargent announced the ultimatum to the board, was doled out over a period of nine months, no single payment being for more than two weeks. Not a cent of salary for the remainder of the year was paid

until ten months later, when the first salaries for the school year 1932-1933, those of September 1932, were paid May 12. So much for this promise!

The Chicago Principals Club *Reporter* for June 1933 contained an article by Principal W. H. Spurgin of the West Pullman School, who explained the standing and responsibility of the Sargent Committee as follows:

But there is a still more fundamental reason why the people should refuse to allow such a group to take charge of their affairs. Our system of government is founded on the principle that the people shall govern themselves through officials whom they themselves have elected. We are dealing here with a group which knows no higher authority. They are self-appointed and for an indefinite term. They were not selected by the people; they are not subject to recall; they will never have to stand for re-election; in short, they are responsible to no one.

President Robert Maynard Hutchins of the University of Chicago wrote an article which was published in the *Chicago Herald and Examiner* of Sunday, July 16, 1933. In this article President Hutchins said:

We have a Century of Progress on the lake front. The Board of Education has initiated a century of reaction in the schools. They have denied the young people of Chicago, who need them most, educational opportunities that are more necessary than ever before. Every step they have taken is a backward step. They have damaged the school system so that it will take years to build it up again. They have damaged the city now and in the future. They have betrayed the children of Chicago. Who are these people? They are dummies in every sense of the word. They have no will of their own and they are utterly ignorant of educational problems.

Mr. Llewellyn Jones contributed an article under the title, "The Chicago Interlude," to *The New Republic* of July 5, 1933, in which he said:

The unofficial fascism which runs Chicago today is not only evident in the school situation but it is also felt throughout the administration of the Fair. Incidentally, among our recent social occasions in the life of the Fair was Rufus Dawes's welcome to the Italian delegation when he congratu-

lated the Italians on the alleged fact that in Italy "discipline has replaced disorder, control superseded confusion."

So much for official fascism. Our own is strictly unofficial. But the teachers know that it is functioning. Although a recent payment was made them, they are still five and one-half months in arrears in salaries which have been cut. . . . In accordance with good fascist precedent, this attempt is being made on the principle of control as opposed to assent. Indeed, it is remote control.

On Friday, July 21, 1933, a mass meeting was held at the Chicago Stadium to voice a protest against the school-wrecking program of the Chicago Board of Education which was evidently following the instruction of the fascist group. Dean Charles H. Judd of the School of Education, University of Chicago, was the principal speaker at that mass meeting. Dean Judd voiced a very vigorous protest against the school-wrecking program and placed the blame squarely upon the Sargent Committee in the following words:

The citizens of Chicago are determined to know why the solid majority of the Board of Education has taken the position that it must cut down the activities of the schools. The statements can be made with the assurance that the so-called "economy committee" of the board was advised by the paid agent of the committee of which Fred W. Sargent is the chairman, the committee commonly known as the Citizens Committee, that the majority of the Board of Education acted under orders from the mayor, and that the mayor, in turn, accepted the policy dictated by the owner of the *Chicago Daily Tribune*. The majority members of the board are mere puppets. The Board of Education has the power under law to build up the schools of this city as great social institutions. The majority members of the board are, at the behest of their bosses, using their power, which should be turned to constructive ends, to rob the youth of Chicago of their rights in a democracy.

Mr. Charles Stillman, a Chicago school principal, wrote an article entitled "Financial Fascism in Control," for the *Phi Delta Kappan*, February 1933, in which he said:

The effectiveness of the weapon of the veto power over financial assistance from the banks has been testified by statements of public officials who

have said, in effect, "We are sitting here with a gun at our heads." It was frankly and dramatically illustrated at the public budget hearing of the Board of Education when a member of the board said to several hundred representatives of organized parents who were protesting against further school slashes: "You are in the wrong forum. We are the Board of Education, but the Citizens Committee is determining the extent of our expenditures, and you should be presenting your arguments to them."

On February 27, 1934, Miss Margaret A. Haley, a well-known teacher-leader of Chicago, issued a bulletin to the teachers in which she described a conference of teachers with the Board of Education of that city. Her bulletin contains this statement:

But the one hundred and one pages of stenographic report of the meeting show that the board was helpless to do anything, unless and until it could get the consent of the bankers and others.

About October 3, 1932, the teachers of Chicago acting upon a suggestion of the Chicago Division of the Illinois State Teachers Association petitioned Governor Emerson to call a special session of the 57th General Assembly to enact legislation for the protection and relief of the teachers. We quote the following from the statement of the reasons for such petition.

Representatives of the Chicago bankers appeared before the Board of Education on July 12, 1932, and stated that the banks would not buy the board tax warrants unless the board reduced its 1932 tax levy, and further stated that the banks would be guided by the recommendations of the representatives of the Citizens' Committee, Mr. Frederick Sargent and Mr. Earnest R. Graham, both of whom were present at the meeting when the bankers' representatives spoke. Mr. Sargent and Mr. Graham had long been urging a \$15,000,000 cut in the 1932 school tax levy which the Board of Education, on March 23, 1932, had certified to the City Council, but which on July 12 had not been passed by the City Council.

On Friday, September 30, 1932, the day that Senate Bill 34 became a law, published statements that the mayor had said the banks had again refused to purchase warrants appeared in all Chicago afternoon papers. One paper said: "Fred Sargent, as chairman of the committee, tells us we must reduce the 1931 tax-levy ordinance before the bankers will buy more Tax Anticipation Warrants," said the mayor."

It may be of interest to know what estimate a member of the Board of Education placed upon the power of this fascist Citizens Committee. The Chicago Principals Club *Reporter* of November 1933 quotes a radio address by Mrs. Helen M. Hefferan, a member of the Chicago Board of Education, in which she said:

With the distress of its school employees daily becoming more acute, there was formed a self-constituted "Citizens' Committee," representing the financial interests, and including numerous representatives of leading Chicago banks. This committee under the chairmanship of Fred W. Sargent, president of the Northwestern Railway, faced a rare opportunity to render a valuable public service in a great emergency. It was soon evident, however, that of all the taxing bodies concerned in the expenditure of public funds the Board of Education was to be singled out for unprecedented drastic cuts. The city, the county, the park system, the sanitary district, were largely overlooked in the committee's program for retrenchment. The Board of Education was forced again and again to slash its budget ruthlessly in response to the committee's insistent demands.

But why quote all these evidences of fascism in Illinois when the chairman of the Committee on Public Expenditures admits it?

The Saturday Evening Post of January 14, 1933, contained a long article by Fred W. Sargent, president of the Chicago and Northwestern Railway, and chairman of the Committee on Public Expenditures. The title of the article was "The Tax Payer Takes Charge," and a reading of the article makes it perfectly clear that by "the taxpayer" he means the small organized group of powerful bankers and financial and industrial magnates composing the committee of which he was chairman. In other words, it is clear that he meant that his little group *was taking charge of affairs* in Chicago. His very first statements are as follows:

Since March 1932 Chicago has been steadily achieving a sharp reduction in the operating costs of its government through the cooperation of its various officials with an extralegal body of which *I* am the general chairman. This is the Committee on Public Expenditures, composed of

one hundred men whose only right to interfere is their love of their city and their desperation as taxpayers.

Please notice that he proclaims that his committee of one hundred is an extralegal body but that it is doing things to and with the government. Other quotations from the article by Mr. Sargent are as follows:

What is important now is retrenchment, and then more and more retrenchment. We are questioning the necessity for everything, and any intelligent group in that frame of mind soon discovers that first on the list of essentials comes police, fire, and health protection in the order named.

We are measuring with an uncompromising gauge. We know that the governments which represent us must live within an income fixed by our capacity and willingness to pay . . . the taxpayers can be as cohesive, as determined, aye, as ruthless in promoting economy as other groups heretofore have been in promoting uncontrolled spending.

The problem as it extends into the future becomes one of enlisting in the public service unreachable leadership, . . . men of sufficient stature to take charge for the people of the people's affairs.

Our committee found its power in the genuine eagerness of most of the officials to coöperate, plus the fact that the banks had decided that our committee's judgment could be guided by us. I do not mean that they have been disposed to put up any sum we might ask for. Naturally not, since they are banks. But they have shown that they positively will not lend money for any municipal function which does not have our active support. This has been a powerful lever in dealing with the really small number of recalcitrants in public office.

The business men of Chicago have learned their lesson. We shall not again let the mechanism run wild. Since we are keeping our minds strictly on the matter of immediate reductions in expenditures we have not yet decided how we shall work out the matter of future control. Eventually we may have a permanent organization to embrace the general purposes of the existing committee.

Now, if one man at the head of a committee of one hundred or fewer proclaims to the world that his committee is in charge of certain governmental functions, that they are "unreachable," and that they may permanently "take charge for the people of

the people's affairs," we have the very essence of fascism. We have a perfect antithesis of what another Illinois citizen, who was a real statesman, described as "a government of the people, by the people, and for the people."

We have called numerous witnesses, and their testimony shows that in Illinois we have a small, self-appointed, extralegal, irresponsible group of big-business men, with one man as their chief spokesman, who are asserting a power of dictation in governmental affairs. They limit the credit and determine the budgets of governmental units by their control of the banks. The regular chosen public officials are "dummies" and "puppets" in their hands, and such officials use their power destructively "at the behest of their bosses." If this isn't fascism, it is worse!

We could call many more responsible witnesses to show the growing power of the same type of fascism in State and national affairs. But the limits of space forbid. We shall conclude by quoting one more paragraph from the editorial in *The School Review*, called as our first witness, as follows:

Educators would not need to be greatly concerned over the dictatorship, in Chicago if circumstances of the type described were restricted to that community. The disturbing fact is that such conditions are illustrative of what is taking place throughout the nation.

ADAPTATION OF THE SCHOOLS TO THE SOCIAL ORDER IN THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

E. H. SANGUINET

E. H. Sanguinet took his B.S. and A.M. degrees at the University of Missouri, and his Ph.D. at Teachers College of Columbia University. Before entering upon his studies, he had varied experience in industry and engineering. He thus became acquainted with real life. For several years he was in schoolwork in the Philippines. His doctor's dissertation is a searching analysis of the home and industrial life of the Filipino people as a basis for schoolwork.

The development of the public-school system in the Philippine Islands probably ranks among the outstanding events in the history of modern education. Thirty years ago public education for the masses was nonexistent. Today the Filipino people point with considerable pride to a system of free, public schools, housed in modern school buildings and roughly comparable in pupil enrollment and number of teachers to that of New York City. The report of the director of education of the Philippine Islands for 1931 shows the enrollment to be approximately one and one-quarter millions of pupils with a staff of thirty thousand teachers, supervisors, and administrators of whom less than three hundred are Americans.

The educational achievements of the Filipinos seem even more remarkable if we consider some of the difficulties which have been surmounted.

1. Normal schools had to be established and thirty thousand teachers had to be trained in a language that was foreign to them.
2. Twenty-eight hundred modern school buildings had to be designed and built to meet subtropical conditions and to house one and one-quarter millions of children. In addition many buildings of a temporary nature had to be constructed.

3. The problem had to be solved of administering and supervising a system of public schools scattered throughout ninety odd islands strung out in a line the length of which is approximately the distance between New York and Key West, Florida. Lack of good roads and efficient water and land transportation further complicated the problem.

4. The problem of financing the schools was also one of considerable difficulty. Some idea of the enormity of this problem can be gained by considering the financial resources of the country, which reveal the limitations with which school officials were confronted. In 1930 the entire national revenue was approximately 170,000,000 pesos¹ of which eighteen per cent was apportioned for school purposes. The per pupil cost of education was, therefore, limited to 25.61 pesos.

Tremendously powerful social forces must have been operating to make possible even a partial solution of these problems. Although it is difficult to isolate and specify just what these forces were, there seems to be enough evidence to hazard naming two: first, the absolute though blind faith of the masses of the people that education is the panacea that would solve practically all their difficulties, and, second, the pioneer spirit of the first group of American teachers—their determination and willingness to sacrifice self-interest for an ideal.

The powerful belief of the people in the efficiency of education may be deduced from the facts that (a) no truant officers are needed in the Philippines to enforce attendance laws. Hundreds of children throughout the archipelago have their names on the waiting lists for admission to the schools, and are clamoring for an opportunity to learn; (b) that for every thirty pesos contributed to education by the government a voluntary contribution of one peso is made by the people. In 1930 these voluntary gifts amounted to 1,133,226 pesos. Striking demonstrations

¹ The peso is worth \$.50.

of the common belief of all classes of people in the worth of education may be seen in the efforts of any number of communities to provide educational facilities for their children. The rich citizens donate money, land, equipment, while the poorer people furnish work animals and labor. Some go to the mountain forests to fell trees and hew timbers; others provide carabaos for hauling materials; and still others do carpentry and construction work.

The impetus which the indomitable spirit of the early American teacher gave to the movement towards a national system of public education cannot be overestimated. These teachers reflected the strong sympathy towards a suppressed subject people which swept the United States in the period after the Spanish-American War. These teachers were of necessity a selected group, as only persons of courage and idealistic convictions would take the risk of traveling ten thousand miles from their homes to live without the comforts and conveniences that were theirs in the United States; to risk the ravages of cholera, dysentery, typhoid, and malaria; and to be isolated in a foreign land, the language and customs of which they did not understand.

The first schools were, however, of military rather than of civilian origin. For several years after the sovereignty of the Philippines had been ceded by Spain the Filipinos continued to resist the occupation of the Islands by United States troops. Whereas it may be true that military expediency rather than educational aims was responsible for the establishment of these schools, nevertheless it was the custom of American army officers to start a school with a soldier-teacher as soon as a town had been pacified.

When peace was declared approximately one thousand American teachers were sent from the United States on the transport *Thomas* and the public-school system of today really had its inception. These teachers were sent to stations throughout the

various provinces and began to teach without books, equipment, or buildings. The writer has listened to many interesting stories of how thatched-roofed shelters supported by bamboo poles were hastily constructed to form the school building. Rows of bamboo poles were used as seats and banana-leaf copy books completed the equipment. Blackboards, books, pencils, and paper came later. The curriculum was limited to the teaching of English. Thus the first aim of education was "To provide a common language in place of the numerous native dialects in order to permit a broader social intercourse and the development of democratic government."

In general, the first classes consisted of rather mature pupils. After a very short time the demand for more schools became so insistent that it was necessary to use the Filipino pupils of these early classes as teachers in new schools. This was accomplished by having classes under the American teachers in the morning for the new Filipino teachers who would go to the surrounding communities in the afternoon to teach the lesson they had learned in the morning.

After this initial stage of development buildings and equipment generally became available and the curriculum was broadened to include the native art crafts, which included the fabrication of fiber products, such as hats, mats, etc. Gardening and shopwork were also added to the courses of study.

However, the inclusion of these vocational subjects was not received with enthusiasm. There are several reasons why this was so. The mores of the country placed the designation of social inferiority on those who worked with their hands. So strong was this stigma against manual labor that in the early days the children of the upper social classes would not dare stoop to carrying their books to school. Servants followed the children to and from school carrying the necessary school supplies and books. The preference for academic learning over vocational education

was also due to the fact that with the promise of self-government by the United States many white-collar positions such as provincial officials, clerks, bookkeepers, teachers, and other professional and semi-professional occupations were available as fast as the necessary Filipino personnel could be trained. Then, too, a rather strict authoritarian philosophy prevailed so that with governmental positions came power and prestige. It is only natural under these conditions that the younger generation should turn away from a type of education which held forth promise of long hours of work in the rice paddy with the attendant wallowing to the knees in water and muck, or the low wage of other types of manual work with its concomitant low social rating.

The vocational work in the elementary grades has undergone two rather distinct alterations. The original school population was composed of mature persons, the vocational subjects were on the adult level and the products were designed for commercial purposes. As their schools expanded and younger children came into the schools it became necessary, because of their immaturity, to shift the vocational work to higher grades. Later a gradual change in the philosophy of education manifested itself in a change of emphasis from the finished product to the educational effects upon the individual pupil. That is, the all-round growth of the individual in relation to his environment has superseded the aim of producing a marketable product.

From the beginning the number of pupils increased very rapidly, classes became so large as to become almost unwieldy with the result that teaching procedures and course-of-study outlines tended to become formal and rigid. This drift towards regimentation was also augmented by the fact that normal schools were compelled to turn out teachers at such a rate of speed that it was impossible to train them thoroughly in background content and methods, and at the same time to inculcate

a sound working philosophy of education. In recent years teachers and supervisors have been struggling diligently to individualize instruction, and considerable progress has been made, particularly in the primary grades. Other factors that are assisting in the solution of this problem are increased efficiency in normal training and a tendency to abandon a strictly departmentalized subject curriculum for a more integrated curriculum of the unit-of-work type.

The second decade after the establishment of the American type of school may be said to be the era of secondary education. Elementary-school graduates became numerous and a high school was finally established in the capital of each of the forty-eight provinces. The curriculum of these high schools was uniform and strictly academic in nature, and was patterned after the traditional college-preparatory curriculum in the United States.

Some agricultural secondary schools and some trade schools (limited almost entirely to furniture making) were established. These vocational schools struggled for existence while the academic high schools were overcrowded. In 1931 four out of every five students in secondary schools were pursuing either the college-entrance or the normal curriculum.

For many years the academic high schools performed a needed function in giving basic training for white-collar occupations. However, during the last ten years Filipinos have replaced Americans in practically all government positions, in the professions, and in many commercial positions. Recently it has become increasingly evident that the saturation point for the placement of graduates of academic secondary schools was being approached, and the bureau of education has this year authorized the establishment of a new type of curriculum for the academic high school which permits a wide substitution of commercial and vocational work for the usual college-entrance subjects. One

very strong factor in hastening the change from the purely academic curriculum of the majority of the present high schools is the growing realization among Filipinos that with the coming of political independence which has been authorized by the Congress of the United States, economic independence must also be accomplished. Crucial financial, commercial, and industrial problems must be met when free trade with the United States is abolished and Philippine goods must compete for markets in the United States on the same basis as other foreign nations which are better prepared for the struggle.

Today, the problems of administrative control, of housing the pupils, and of securing trained teaching personnel are well on the way towards a solution. The careful selection of materials of instruction which are indigenous to the culture of the Philippines rather than to that of the United States, and a restatement of the educational philosophy of the public schools seem to be the most pressing and pertinent problems of the immediate future.

SURVIVING SCHOOLS

E. L. MORGAN

E. L. Morgan is director of training for public welfare at the University of Missouri. Professor Morgan was asked to write as the representative of the extensive rural sections of this country.

One of the most disconcerting aspects of the present emergency is the number of public schools that have found it necessary to readjust radically their normal program by eliminating certain subject matter, by reducing salaries of teachers, and by making other economies equally drastic or by a complete closing of the school system.

In sharp contrast to this are two types of community situations in which the school carries on its normal program with some economies which, however, are not sufficient to impair its effectiveness: first, the community which votes the legal limit in school levy, thus requiring its taxable wealth to carry the necessary load to maintain a good school; second, the community limited in capital resources which not only votes the legal levy limit but which employs extralegal means to supplement school funds in order that the program may be carried on.

During the past two months it has been our privilege to inquire of a rather large number of widely scattered village and rural-school teachers and board chairmen as to the means they have employed to keep going in the midst of most unusual financial circumstances. Outstanding in all the replies was the statement that "Our community is sold on the school program to the extent that the people do what is necessary to provide the funds," either through voting the levy limit or by the use of many sorts of money-raising devices recognized as being permissible in the emergency only. As we read the replies we were reminded of that old adage "We want what is made to appear the desirable known and we usually pay for what we want." The data clearly

show that these schools have been community service institutions for some years and that it is the normal program the people have defended rather than a trumped-up emergency one.

The following is a composite statement of those aspects of the regular school program or policies which were said by those reporting to have been responsible for community support when the emergency came and put the people to the real test of whether they would continue to maintain their school. Their persistent recurrence either in full number or in groups rather suggests that they may represent the philosophy of education held by those responsible for the affairs of the school system in these small localities and thus for them comprise a category of what a community has a right to expect of a school in return for its loyalty as expressed through financial investment. They are stated in terms of what the school program provided for the community.

It was recognized that a very large portion of the pupils will put in their lives in the home community or in one very similar. Hence the curriculum was planned to meet the probable life needs of this large majority rather than for the small minority who might enter college. The fundamentals were well taught. There was an adjustment of the individual child to his social environment together with a constructive interpretation of small-town and farm life at its best rather than at its worst. Vocational education was developed as fully as was practicable with guidance related to the child's limitations. A new responsibility was assumed in moral education and a recognition that this must come out of the life the child lives through his choices and his activities.

The school gave its teachers to leadership in existing community functions as far as they were capable. Teachers became a part of the life of the community and frequently made themselves indispensable in the thinking of the people. Frequently with the teacher's leadership there developed potential local

leaders who eventually assumed responsibilities while the teacher gave direction to another enterprise.

The school building was planned for and made fully available to community uses. It was recognized that the only way for a school to become a community center is for it to become the center of the affairs of the community as far as this lies within its scope without impinging upon the province of other community institutions. The best adapted room was equipped for meetings, with lights and some movable chairs for adults. A stove and some serving equipment was provided which made hot lunches possible for pupils and social meetings for adults. Provision was made for a community library, operated in coöperation with the State Library Association and the State university library. Reasonable equipment was provided for dramatics and the revival of many of the group recreational events of a generation past. The school grounds served the out-of-doors recreational needs of the community including baseball in the summer. The school equipment was thus turned to the all-year-round play and recreational needs of the community.

It gave encouragement and, if necessary, leadership to needed community movements such as the Parent-Teacher Association, 4-H Club work, the Red Cross, scouting, public health, agricultural and home-economics extension. Some of these became a part of extracurricular activities of the school while others were given leadership in their beginning and later turned over to local leadership.

Outstanding among these schools was the manner in which they were recognizing both the opportunity and the responsibility for the emergency education of adults. They might be said to be living out Thorndike's "Learning from Six to Sixty." The Federal plan of adult education was receiving coöperation both in continuation and vocational classes as well as in the beginnings of retraining for the unadjusted man and woman. A num-

ber of schools have employed new staffs for this work. They appear to agree with Germane that "The school should help the parents interpret their home and community problems in order that they, in turn, may help the teacher with her school problems."

Village and country life is interpreted both to youth and to adults at its best. Without overlooking its limitations it is portrayed in dignity as a superior culture. This is interpreted through volumes in the library on village and farm life set in the problems of today, through home-talent plays, and through a recognition of such agrarian seasonal occasions as "May Day," "the planting moon," and "the harvest moon." These and others are made special occasions in which the school is the agency for the observance of occasions very deep-seated in the culture of village and farm people. A number of similar events were said to have been planned with a view to developing a spirit of closer coöperation between village and farm people. These were promoted particularly by consolidated school systems.

The school, recognizing that its status will be determined by the future of the community, kept before the people the need for long-term planning in those things which represent its major interests. One school-board chairman said, "we get speakers who will lead the community to see the need of looking far ahead in everything it does." Obviously the school cannot give technical leadership in such community planning but it can keep the attention of the community directed that way. Most any community can get help for such a program from various private agencies as well as from its State organizations, boards, and institutions including its State university and its State department of education. In all of this the local editor is a most worthy ally.

Constructive consideration is given to the unfortunate and underprivileged of the community. In the school system this is arranged for through the opportunity room or some modifica-

tion of that plan. This takes the teacher into the homes of unadjusted pupils and gives the opportunity for council and guidance in situations which may become acute. Through information carried to the school, the teacher learns of need or distress in the community and arranges for care as far as the facilities of the community provide. Many teachers are now serving on emergency relief committees or directly aiding in carrying out the work to be done. In this they become modified social workers.

Prominence is given to local leadership in all possible school events. Whenever feasible a member of the school board or other local person presides at all functions. The people are made to understand that the school is their institution to conduct and that the employed personnel are their public servants.

The foregoing is gleaned from reports of schools that are being conducted under financial conditions which might otherwise have meant relative failure. It presents a picture of the school which recognizes its task as being that of a community-service institution doing those things the community wants done and is willing to pay for. Obviously good organization and administration are essential but not ends in themselves. A recent study of school-bond elections showed that such issues succeeded in communities where the school served the needs of the people and failed where it did not. Another study made of unemployed teachers shows a marked tendency by communities to retain those teachers who are community minded and to release those who are not.

It is understood that the logical import of the conclusions of the study here presented may run counter to the educational philosophy of many. They are presented with a full knowledge of certain implications which may be incompatible with some of our present standards and procedures. A plan involving these services implies new tasks for the teacher. Community responsibilities may need to be a part of the teachers' weekly time

schedule. It may necessitate additional personnel both in the local system and in the administrative office of the county superintendent in order that supervision may be given such activities as adult education including vocational retraining. It will also involve a larger budget which it is believed the people will provide in view of the larger service rendered. An increased budget will necessitate a further extension of the equalized school-fund principle which provides for the taxing of wealth where it is to educate children where they are.

Such a system will require rather radical changes in teacher training to render the teacher competent to exercise community leadership, which implies a working knowledge of sociology and psychology applied to local social situations in which adults and not children are the determinants. It has been reported that among teachers who lose their jobs four per cent are due to a lack of knowledge of technical subject matter, while ninety per cent are due to an inability to get along harmoniously with people.

Such a program would necessitate an entire restatement of the goals of public education. It would also involve a new standard of measurement for the school system in which new categories would be given a rather prominent place. Likewise the rating of teachers would be upon a somewhat different basis in which local social participation and leadership would be prominent. In this the autocratic school executive of the present day would probably rank rather low.

In considering the results of this study, the experience of peoples culturally older than we shed a luminous ray. From various corners of the earth, culminating in the folk schools of Denmark, we see the efforts of peoples to meet change with change which appears to represent our logical next step in the conduct of public education.

SCHOOL COSTS AND SCHOOL SERVICE

JUNIUS L. MERIAM

J. L. Meriam is supplementing his well-known experiment at the University of Missouri by directing two schools in the vicinity of Los Angeles with emphasis upon a curriculum in terms of home life and community affairs.

Three billions! These are dollars expended upon education in one year.

Six billions! These are dollars devoted to building construction in one year.

Twelve billions! Dollars in passenger automobiles spent in one year.

Three hundred billions! The value of all tangible property in 1930.

Fifteen hundred billions! Value of human resources in the United States in 1930.¹

Even the first and smallest of these values is so far beyond the comprehension of school people—and many others—as to really mean little, almost nothing in the problem of school maintenance. Nothing? Perhaps yet worse! Money is the root of all evil, the Scriptures have long declared. The publication of these almost incomprehensible amounts of money may have “turned the heads” of those who are concerned with education and school welfare. Four times as much money spent in one year upon passenger automobiles as upon the whole of our educational program seems to justify the complaint that a larger share of the eighty billions’ income for one year be devoted to teachers’ salaries, to materials of instruction, to school buildings.

School costs—in terms of dollars! It does cost dollars to conduct our schools. No one would seriously question this. Increase the schools’ efficiency (whatever that may mean) and the costs

¹ These approximation figures are taken from the *Research Bulletin* of the National Education Association for November 1932.

are increased, not necessarily proportionately, but at least very considerably. And the efficiency of our schools has increased greatly in recent decades, it is confidently claimed. Commercial prosperity prior to 1929 and financial depression since that date have severally and jointly contributed to center much attention upon the costs of our public schools. The title of this article implies a consideration of service in connection with or in contrast to costs. The reader will see the relationship better if he reviews briefly the emphasis given to costs, as represented by the Research Division of the National Education Association.

The *Research Bulletin* for January and March 1924 deals with "Current Facts on City School Costs." In the foreword, Secretary Crabtree says:

The effect of the general desire for tax reduction and of the movement to reduce school costs, led by interests and agencies opposed to the extension of public school privileges, cannot be predicted. It is certain, however, that unless the public is informed and aroused the schools will receive a setback. The economic and political situation gives encouragement to the opposition. . . . Everything depends on adequately informing the public. . . .

To inform the public is the purpose of this *Bulletin*.

The increase in school costs seems to call for explanation. And adequate explanation is justification. The lay public is responsible for increase in population and indeed the proportionately greater increase in school attendance is due to change in industrial conditions more than to inducements by the school. The responsible public must, therefore, pay the bills.

A year later (May 1925) the *Research Bulletin* presents another study, "Taking Stock of the Schools." Again in the foreword, Secretary Crabtree speaks: ". . . there are those who say we cannot afford to have better schools. They are wrong. In this *Bulletin* facts are presented that cannot be denied." The central question in this study is: "Are the schools costing too much?" An emphatic "No" is the answer, based upon a compari-

son with other expenditures. For example, more was spent for cigars, cigarettes, and tobacco in 1924 than for education. The amount spent for soft drinks, ice cream, chewing gum, and candy is slightly less than that for education. *Therefore* (for "figures do not lie,") it is contended that our schools do not cost too much.

But a second contention is made in answering the question: "Are the schools getting results?" Representative answers are the following: "Education is our most valuable form of capital." "Educated customers make for good business." "Ability to read with ease is essential to modern advertising methods." ". . . . Earning power increases with education." Figures are given to show that "the child that stays out of school to earn less than \$9.02 a day is losing money, not making money." These pages present results of education in terms of financial gains to the individual.

In less than another year (January and March 1926) the *Research Bulletin* reports a study on "The Ability of the States to Support Education." This is essentially a statistical comparison of the economic resources of the forty-eight States. The conclusion is reached: ". . . . certain sections will provide school facilities distinctly inferior to those found in other sections. At least this will be true in so far as financial support determines the character of school facilities."

A series of two *Bulletins*, November 1926 and January 1927, include studies of "Major Issues in School Finance." The emphasis is again upon costs for the support of schools, but the conclusion is reached that the nation's resources are ample whatever be the costs.

The *Research Bulletin* for September 1927 is entitled, "The Advance of the American School System." The nature of this "advance" is indicated in the titles of the sections: lengthening and enriching life; providing adequate school plants; school

attendance; teacher compensation; a living curriculum; becoming a nation of eighth graders; adequate school support. Except for the fifth one, these evidences of progress are essentially school centered in which costs are a large consideration. Number five is largely a table (after Cubberley) showing the changes in our elementary-school subjects from 1775 to 1900.

The following year (November 1928), "Can the Nation Afford to Educate Its Children" is the title of a *Research Bulletin*. Another *Bulletin* followed two months later (January 1929) with a supplement: "Can the States afford to Educate Their Children?" Wealth, income, and school support are the central topics in each *Bulletin*. In the foreword is the statement: "In nearly all of the States the legislature faces the problem of securing funds for public schools." Again school costs!

"Investing in Public Education" is the title for the *Bulletin* appearing in September 1930. Secretary Crabtree continues his foreword: "The taxpayer's contact with the school is not close. . . . His understanding of the school is too often based on the reports of children or the misrepresentation of a self-seeking politician. . . . The school can rise above them (misunderstandings) by making known its purposes and accomplishments." Director of Research Norton continues to exhibit through figures and charts the ability of the public to pay for its schools.

In March and May 1930 two *Bulletins* present "A Self-survey Plan for State School Systems," ". . . in response to many requests received by the research division for a method of evaluating State school systems." It is not now surprising that the survey outlined is largely directed to administrative aspects involving school costs.

The *Bulletin* for May 1932 deals with "Estimating State School Efficiency." "Five factors related to efficiency" are: proportion of children reached; holding power of the schools; qual-

ity of teaching provided; material school environment; per cent of literacy. Again school costs are prominent.

Further bulletins of this character are: "Facts on School Costs" (November 1932); "Salaries in City School Systems" (March 1933); "Constructive Economy in Education" (September 1933); "Current Conditions in the Nation's Schools (November 1933); "Five Years of State School Revenue Legislation" (January 1934).

Attention has been called to only this one series of educational publications. The emphasis upon school costs in this series alone is very considerable. And equal is the emphasis upon the ability of the public to meet these costs.

Good things usually cost money—or effort. American education is generally regarded as good. Figures show that it is expensive: three billion dollars. What are the effects of the publication of the costs of education in these *Bulletins* during the past ten years? The general public is probably blissfully ignorant of these *Research Bulletins*. But this same public obviously discovers through indirect means that small property owners and large corporations are paying these costs. Then comes their reaction, expressed through school boards and State legislatures. The Joint Commission on the Emergency in Education was appointed by the National Education Association in February 1933 "to inquire into the difficulties, financial and otherwise, which the schools were encountering, and to take action aimed to end these difficulties." Circulars, mimeographed and printed, are rather widely scattered, broadcasting an appeal Save Our Schools. Money is needed to keep schools from closing. Money is needed to retain teachers and provide materials for instruction. A report on "Education in the Drought States," issued in October 1934, presents a map showing this emergency appeal coming from Michigan in the East to Oregon and California in the West.

One of the means of appeal is the presentation of figures, as

in the bulletins referred to above, to show that the general public has resources sufficient to meet these high costs. But this is not adequately convincing to secure a return of needed funds. A second means is to make claims in educational publications that the modern school gives adequate attention to character development and adequate preparation for life. Statements of schoolmen are not always convincing to laymen and funds wanted for the schools are not supplied.

The emergency in education is indeed serious. The way out is by no means simple. Many suggestions are needed which together may bring relief, more permanent than temporary. The title of this article and that of this issue of *THE JOURNAL* are suggestive of a point of view scarcely advocated.

On Sunday, December 3, 1933, over the National Broadcast network the public listened to a dialogue between the president of a public-service corporation and a professor of education. The topic was: "Public Responsibility for Education." The discussion centered upon costs and taxation. Did the two men or most of their hearers think of changing the wording of the title to one more pertinent, *School Responsibility to the Public*? A few years ago Suzzallo gave to the public a little volume, *Our Faith in Education*. Our public schools from kindergarten through the State's university should be grateful to the public for the confidence placed in the schools and indeed for the generous financial support. The public has been willing to accept the schoolman's statement as to the value of an education. But in recent years there is developing an earnest skepticism—a veritable product of the more progressive schools. That skepticism is questioning the conventional values of the traditional school. The late "project method" and the present "activity program" are mild expressions of school response to a growing demand for the infusion of more of real life into our elementary schools. The experiment, initiated by the Progressive Education Association, in which

twenty-seven selected high schools are free to conduct their work independent of conventional entrance requirements, is another expression of the results of frankly questioning traditional school practice. Of course, many prominent men in business and industry will continue to call for the good old three R's, on the tacit assumption that the traditional three-R schooling has been the cause of American greatness. One result, by reason of that old curriculum or in spite of it, is that the common man is now thinking as he never did before, and one direction of his thinking is that of life values for schoolwork. Our public schools are essentially an investment. The common man and other thinking men will demand before long—perhaps very soon—that their investments in schools yield returns in human service far more real than the "general discipline" of the old school.

"The development of innate abilities and interests, of high standards of taste and appreciation, of social understanding, of wholesome social attitudes and habits, the cultivation of a mind at once appreciative and critical of the society of which it is part—*these are fundamentals of education.*"² Essentially this was claimed by the writer as early as 1909,³ maintaining that the normal activities of children are more fundamental in educational procedure than are the three R's. This leads to a very brief statement of the school service referred to in the title of this article. How can our public schools render service to the public so that in the emergency in education, as at present, the taxpayers and the general public will not allow their benefactor to suffer.

In a word, the curriculum must be strictly in terms of the life activities which we seek to improve. This is to prevail in both the elementary grades and in the high school. The objective must be

² Institute of Educational Research, Division of Field Studies, *Report of the Survey of the Schools of Chicago, Illinois* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University), 1932.

³ *Proceedings of the National Education Association* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association), 1909.

that of home and community service rather than making advancement through the hierarchy of a school system.

During early childhood play life is dominant. Wholesome play is generously approved in the home and in the community. Those who are responsible for the care of children appreciate the service of schools in helping these children in their games and their frolic. But beware! Books that have such a title as *Two Hundred Games that Teach* and schools using play to motivate the three R's are misleading the public and doing damage to children. Play for wholesome fun should have a large place in the curriculum of the early grades.

The story functions large in the lives of children. Story books, if good, are children's staunchest friends. Most children have too few companionable books. Difficulties in learning to read are almost nil if children are surrounded by good books with much freedom and time to read. Generously equipped story rooms in our schools will render real service to home and community.

Boys and girls delight in being busy with their hands. To make things is in harmony with their natures. A great variety of construction work at school develops inclination and ability to render real service at home. Shopwork, cooking, sewing, crafts tend to develop a good attitude towards industrial activities later.

Young people need to become better acquainted with the wonderfully complex environment in which they live: a physical environment and a social environment. This calls for study, becoming more and more serious as pupils advance from year to year. Such studies in school carry over into home life as the conventional "homework" never does.

Thus, the elementary-school program has four major groups of childlike activities intimately related to normal life. If we must think in terms of achievements in the conventional subjects, there are objective records to support the judgment that in these normal activities, if vigorously carried on, the pupils acquire abil-

ties to read, write, and cipher even more efficiently than by means of the traditional course of study. Further, when these pupils become high-school students, they excel those of the conventional schooling.

This same general program is applicable in the high school. The traditional English, algebra, history, etc., are largely preparatory courses for college entrance. Comparatively little of such work touches the normal life of youth. These young people should be made aware of the larger phases of real life. This may be viewed as consisting of labor and industry on the one hand, and leisure and recreation on the other. As a means of enriching and improving both, considerable information is needed, in so far as it is strictly relevant. But never knowledge for knowledge's sake. It is a comparatively simple problem so to schedule all the current high-school subjects as to contribute to these three phases of life. For example, under the caption of labor and industry may be listed shopwork, commercial skills as in stenography, typing, bookkeeping, etc., also household arts and the various crafts. Under leisure and recreation may be grouped English literature (when it is treated as authors intended), foreign language if on a par with English literature, also, art, music, athletics, etc. In real life the third group is absorbed in the other two—that is we acquire information as needed to function in labor and leisure activities. But in school we may schedule a group of informational studies: history, physics, chemistry, mathematics, etc.

To simplify the administration of these three groups, a six-hour high-school day may be scheduled in three two-hour periods, one period for each group. Experience will effectively change the content of these traditional subjects. Their identity will be lost in the three major phases of social-industrial life.

When the elementary and secondary schools reconstruct their work so as to contact intimately real life and thus render service, the general public will the more generously rally to their support.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles—and where possible descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in kindred fields of interest to educational sociology. Correspondence upon proposed projects and methods will be welcomed.

RESEARCH AT THE CHRISTMAS MEETINGS

The Christmas meetings of the American Sociological Society,¹ which were devoted to the general topic, "Human Problems of Social Planning," gave a large emphasis to research. Thirty or more of the papers presented dealt with some aspect of research problems in the social field.

A number of topics important to research in educational sociology were presented by various speakers. One of these was a discussion of the scale of occupational status by Mapheus Smith of the University of Kansas. The importance of achieving an objective scale for rating occupations lies in part in the possible use of occupations as indices of economic levels and cultural backgrounds. By the use of a rating or ranking method Smith was able to identify an average numerical rating with each occupation. A study of 600 occupations by this method translated into units on a 100 scale made possible their representation upon a two-dimensional chart and presented a somewhat skewed curve of distribution, which had a close correspondence with the judgments of college students as to the relative status of these occupations.

Several papers were devoted to research dealing with relief workers. These researches raised questions as to the employability of these workers and the contribution that education needs to make, both from the standpoint of better equipment of the population for vocational adjustment and of reeducation of persons now unemployable.

A number of the papers at the meetings dealt with the problems of social planning and raised the question of the relation of education to social planning. In almost every instance education was pointed out as having an important function to perform in the preparation for and direction of social planning. Research into the contribution that education should make to social planning appears to be an important undertaking in the light of these presentations.

Several papers were devoted to the topic "Social Statistics in the Federal
¹ Held at the Hotel Morrison, Chicago, Illinois, December 26 to 29, 1934.

Emergency Relief Administration Research Program." These presentations are of interest to educational sociology because of the wide use of relief workers in educational research. The statistical projects of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration which are carried out by State and local work-relief programs were reviewed by Frederic S. Stephan, a sociologist who is coördinator of statistical projects at Washington and who furnishes advice on technical problems, suggests improvements in procedure, and coördinates projects to prevent overlapping, duplication, and conflicts. A tabulation of the first 500 projects reviewed favorably revealed the following distribution:

comprehensive planning and social surveys	34
governmental organizations and taxation	55
education and schools	42
social welfare and relief	44
health and sanitation	49
population	42
occupation, employment, unemployment	32
culture	32
prices, business, industry	35
mortgages, real property, and land utilization	67
traffic	49
historical research and records	29

Of particular interest to educational sociologists were the critical analyses of the reports of the Commission on Social Studies of the American Historical Association.² These papers were presented in the section on educational sociology, as were also papers dealing with research into the sociology of college life.

Another group of papers of interest to educational sociology dealt with the methodology of family research. Mildred Parten of Yale University discussed certain methodological problems of family research arising out of the fact that the unit of investigation is the group rather than the individual—such as the needs for more clear-cut definitions, development of base material for comparative purposes, more adequate techniques for sur-

² Papers presented at the Christmas meetings of the American Sociological Society will be published in the annual volume of the proceedings of the society and in the *American Journal of Sociology*, the official organ of the society. In addition to the *American Journal of Sociology* the Society recognizes the three following publications: *Social Forces*, *Sociology and Social Research*, and *THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY*. Some of the papers presented at the meeting will appear in these periodicals.

veying the general family population, and techniques for obtaining norms of family behavior patterns. Carl C. Zimmerman of Harvard University discussed significant types of family research. His paper presented and criticized the hypotheses used in family research and set forth the reasons of the speaker for believing that these hypotheses are based on presuppositions of linear progress, upon inadequate historical knowledge, upon fantastic evolutionary ideas concerning social organization, upon wish fulfillment, and upon forms of social thinking which appeared to be illogical. He then presented a series of strict hypotheses for family research which he believed would meet these objections.

John Dollard of Yale University presented a paper which was a statement of point of view in the field of family research. His ideas should be helpful in orienting research activities. He stated that the most needed point of view does not fall within the field of family research at all, but is rather one in the total field of social science; it calls for a clear, coherent system of concepts which identify the object of study and permit isolation of important problems for further study.

An important paper dealing with the continuity of research in relation to social planning was presented by Neva R. Deardorff of the Research Department of the New York City Welfare Council. Dr. Deardorff pointed out that "continuity in planning has little chance without continuity of purposive attitudes in the social body to exercise control within given fields of activity." She stated as the ideal for a good research program attached to a planning body a twofold goal: first, to seek to establish findings in such a way that they will rest on genuine, scientific foundations, and, second, that they will also be specifically related to the same work and purpose to which the planning body is dedicated. The importance of continuing research to be carried on concurrently with continuing planning is well emphasized. The speaker stated that "a network of relationship should keep social research centers in close contact with one another for coöperative enterprises, for developing continuity of interest, and for relating otherwise isolated and departed projects." It is interesting to note in this connection that repeated proposals for the establishment of a research clearing house on a voluntary basis of conference and consultation has never been favorably received by the agencies of research (including the welfare council) working in the New York area.

Several papers of especial interest to educational sociology dealt with the general topic of the application of research to college teaching and coun-

seling. The use of research materials in the teaching of courses on marriage and the family was discussed by Mildred C. Thurow of the Merrill-Palmer School of Detroit. Her paper presented three ways in which research material had been used in undergraduate college courses on the family and marriage: first, the use of formal research studies as content material; second, the use of case studies; and, third, the use of student research projects.

Mary S. Fisher of Sarah Lawrence College discussed possible research projects for sociologists as viewed from the field of child development.

Another topic of particular interest in educational sociology discussed in several papers was the technique for prediction in criminology. The so-called actuarial method already familiar to the business world has been applied to the problems of classification of prisoners within institutions and the prediction of violation of parole. This research method has real interest in its possible application to the prediction of truancy, delinquency, and other school behaviors. By its application there is a possibility that the potential truant and delinquent, as well as the potentially successful child, could be determined in advance, a procedure that would make possible the application of preventive methods to forestall undesirable outcomes for the school child.

A final paper of interest in the field of educational sociology was that presented by Stewart G. Cole of the Crozer Theological Seminary, which dealt with recreational facilities in Delaware County, Pennsylvania.

This study has been published under the title: *Leisure in Our Time: A Survey of Recreational Opportunities in Delaware County, Pennsylvania, 1934*.³ It was made under the joint auspices of the Delaware County Park Board and the Delaware County Welfare Council. The purpose of the investigation was to acquaint the community with resources available for indoor and outdoor recreational programming and to furnish a reliable basis for projecting a more adequate program for leisure time.

An appeal to the CWA for help was rewarded to the extent of \$3,500. The staff of fact-finders included engineers, statisticians, architects, teachers, and lawyers from the ranks of the unemployed. They did a rather thorough piece of work. The battery of questionnaires and the appraisal schedule which was used to interpret the gathered data were made available by the National Recreation Association. After the material had been gathered and base map, spot maps, and charts were finished, Professor

³ Prospect Park, Pa.: Harold G. Smith, 1934. The above statement has been provided through the courtesy of Stewart G. Cole.

Stewart G. Cole was commissioned to make an analysis of the findings and to offer an interpretation. This, together with the charts and maps, has been published in the monograph.

The most significant part of the study is the master chart which presumes to offer a bird's-eye view of the present situation with reference to recreational facilities and programing in Delaware County in terms of each of the forty-six boroughs. The patterns of this chart together with the appraisal schedule and the thirteen proposals for further programing merit close study. They represent a method of community study and social programing.

BOOK REVIEWS

Survey of Contemporary Sociology, edited by HENRY PRATT FAIRCHILD. New York: Thomas Nelson and Sons, 1934, 755 pages.

This survey of contemporary sociology is unique in that it presents facts of current sociology from the newspaper with the assumption that the complex group relationships of human beings constitute the subject matter of sociology. The author assumes, further, that since the newspaper records all the important facts of human relationships in the course of the year, the entire aggregate of the news is of sociological significance. With these assumptions the author proceeds to assemble the news of the year under such headings as "The People," "The Family," "Social Control," and so forth. The significance of the book, therefore, does not lie in the newness of the facts because every sociologist and educator will be familiar with them but rather in the organization and interpretation of the news of the year. The extreme care and the logical exactness with which the editor has assembled and interpreted the news makes this yearbook intensely fascinating and of extreme value to the educator and student of sociology.

An Introduction to Educational Sociology, by ROSS L. FINNEY and LESLIE D. ZELENY. New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1934, 332 pages.

The increasing literature, both of books and periodical discussions, relating to sociology in its application not only to education in general, and the school in particular, but also to the work of the classroom teacher, indicates the growing recognition of education and teaching as a sociologi-

cal function. This emphasis though somewhat belated is distinctly encouraging and will inevitably lead to a thoroughgoing reconsideration of school administration, supervision, and instruction in line with the needs of modern living. The book under review emphasizes one aspect of sociological interpretation; namely, some sociological insights into problems daily confronting teachers and supervisors. The strength of the book lies partly in the limitation of its treatment to one aspect of the problem of education and partly in the excellence of the treatment of the problems included. The enumeration of the main headings, I The Community and the Teacher, II Social Interaction in the Classroom, III Culture, Social Institutions, and Education, IV Social Control in the School, indicate the vital importance of this book as a text for normal schools, teachers colleges, and schools of education.

American Social Problems, by WALTER G. BEACH and EDWARD E. WALKER. Stanford University: Stanford University Press, 1934, 391 pages.

The purpose of this volume, as stated by the authors, is to stimulate the interest of young students in their own social world not only by isolated parts about particular problems but also by becoming clearly conscious of the underlying unity in social life. This purpose is well fulfilled. The book itself demonstrates this unity, the language is nontechnical, and the factual data is presented in such a way as to stimulate thought. The problems discussed include: culture, population, rural and urban groups, the American family, etc.

Fascism and Social Revolution, by R. PALME DUTT. New York: International Publishers, 1934, 296 pages.

Until a few years ago fascism has been frequently referred to as a bugaboo of communist propaganda. Today it can no longer be disposed of so lightly. It is an established fact today in Italy, Germany, Austria, Yugoslavia, and in a number of other European countries. In *Fascism and Social Revolution*, R. Palme Dutt, editor of the *British Labor Monthly*, analyzes the principles and practices of fascism in all countries where it has come to power. This analysis leads him to the inevitable conclusion that the basic causes of fascism are present as well in all other countries of western Europe and America—fascism being essentially the result of the inner conflicts and contradictions of modern capitalism. Fascism, however, does not value any of these contradictions. Only a complete revolutionary change in the control and ownership of the means of production by the working class can solve the irreconcilable contradictions of capitalist society.

